



Microwave-assisted synthesis of Ag-doped MOFs-like organotitanium polymer with high activity in visible-light driven photocatalytic NO oxidization



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ABSTRACT

A novel Ag-doped MOF-like organotitanium polymer (Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti)) was synthesized via a microwave-assisted coordination and polymerization reaction with 2-aminoterephthalic acid (H₂ATA) and tetra-*n*-butyl titanate (Ti(OC₄H₉)₄), followed by the crystal growth and assembly onto Ag nanoparticles (NPs). This Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited excellent activity in visible-light driven photocatalytic NO oxidization, much higher than *N*-doped TiO₂ by two times. The NH₂-MOP(Ti) absorbed visible lights to generate photoelectrons and holes, accompanied by producing HO• and O₂^{•−} active sites for the subsequent NO oxidation into NO₃[−]. The Ag NPs allowed assembly of NH₂-MOP(Ti) polymer favoring light absorbance via multiple reflections and also facilitated photoelectrons transfer to reduce photoelectron-hole recombination, leading to the enhanced photocatalytic activity for NO oxidation and inactivating bacteria. Moreover, it could be used repetitively owing to the high stability.

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1. Introduction

Air pollution becomes crucial problem in damaging the human health and the sustainable development of both society and economy. The sweep-gas from cars, power-plants, chemical industries and plant-burning usually contains nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur oxides (SO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), persistent organic pollutants (POPs) and even mercury (Hg), which were considered as the most important reason for the air pollution, which were considered as the most important reason for the air pollution [1–3]. Thus, removal NO_x is one of common targets in treating air pollution [4]. Recently, photocatalysis has received increasing attention in environmental cleaning [5–7] and the photocatalytic NO oxidization represents one of the most promising ways in removing NO_x owing to the simple operation, low cost, high efficiency, and strong durability *etc.* [8,9]. TiO₂ without or with dopants like non-metals, metals, metal ions, and oxides are frequently employed

for photocatalytic NO oxidation under UV lights irradiation [9–11], but they usually display much lower activities than thermal catalysts. Under visible-light irradiation, they exhibit extremely low activity in photocatalytic NO oxidation [8], which limits their utilization of solar lights. Recently, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) become more and more attractive owing to their unique properties and wide applications in sensor, adsorption, catalysis, and energy storage *etc.* [12–14]. Their applications in photocatalytic dye degradation, water splitting, and CO₂ reduction have been widely reported, but most of them exhibit very poor activities [12,15–18]. No report has been found so far for the photocatalytic NO oxidation on MOFs. Herein, we reported for the first time a new Ag-loaded MOFs-like organotitanium polymer prepared by coordination and polymerization reaction between 2-aminoterephthalic acid and Tetra-*n*-butyl titanate in the presence of Ag NPs under microwave irradiation. The unique coordination bond in MOF-like network absorbed visible lights to generate photoelectrons and holes. The Ag NPs promoted the light harvesting and also facilitated photoelectron transfer to retard their recombination with holes. As a result, the as-prepared Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited excellent photocatalytic activity in both NO oxidization and inactivating bacteria under visible lights irradiation.

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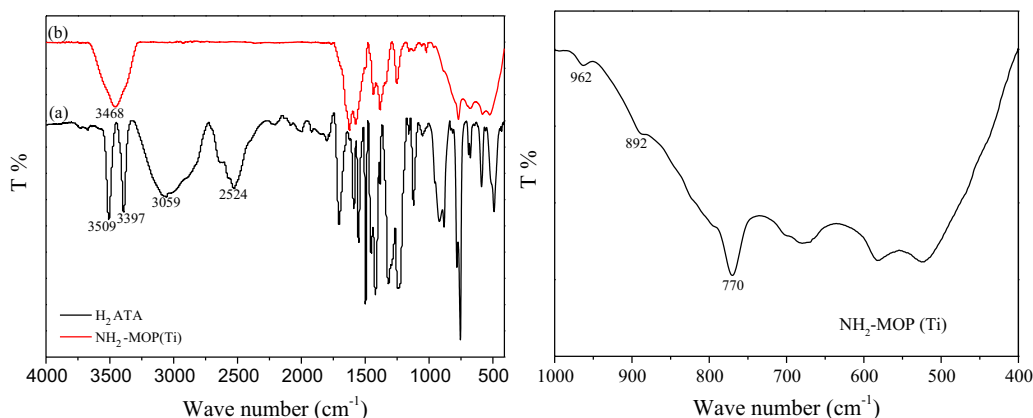


Fig. 1. FTIR spectra of (a) H₂ATA molecule and (b) NH₂-MOP(Ti) polymer. The right is the enlarged FTIR spectrum of NH₂-MOP(Ti).

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

2-aminoterephthalic acid (H₂ATA) was obtained from Sigma–Aldrich. Tetra-*n*-butyl titanate (Ti(OC₄H₉)₄) and Ag nanoparticles (NPs) were obtained from Aladdin. *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF), methanol (MeOH), and anhydrous ethanol (EtOH) were supplied by Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). All materials were used as received without further purification.

2.2. Sample preparation

In a typical run of synthesis, 1.1 g of H₂ATA was added into a solution containing 18 mL of DMF and 2.0 mL of EtOH and stirred at 25 °C for about 20 min to obtain a yellow solution. Then, 1.2 mL of Ti(OC₄H₉)₄ was added and stirred for 30 min, followed by transferring into a 40 mL quartz tube. Then, the mixture was heated to 150 °C within 5 min and kept at this temperature for 15 min controlled by a programed microwave digestion system. After being cooled down to 60 °C, the solid product was filtered, washed thoroughly with DMF and methanol, respectively. Finally, the yellow product was vacuum dried and the as-received organotitanium was denoted as NH₂-MOP(Ti). The Ag@organotitanium polymer was synthesized in the same way by adding desired amount of Ag nanoparticles in the initial stage and denoted as Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti).

For comparison, the *N*-doped TiO₂ was also prepared under supercritical conditions [19]. Briefly, 2.5 mL of 1.0 M HNO₃ aqueous solution was mixed with 10 mL ethanol, followed by adding dropwise into a solution comprised of 40 mL ethanol and 10 mL of Ti(OC₄H₉)₄ at 25 °C under vigorous stirring. The formed TiO₂ gel was aged for 48 h at 40 °C and then transferred into a 500 mL autoclave containing 200 mL of ethanol and 13 mL triethylamine (Et₃N), followed by treating under supercritical conditions at 280 °C for 2 h. After washed thoroughly with deionized water and ethanol, the obtained product was dried at 80 °C, followed by calcining at 350 °C for 8 h to remove the residual organic species.

2.3. Characterization

The morphology was observed via field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, HITACHI S-4800) and transmission electronic micrograph (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100). UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were obtained on a UV–vis spectrophotometer (DRS, UV-2450). The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) approach was used to determine the surface area. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was done on a PerkinElmer PHI 5000C

ESCA system to analyze electronic states. All the binding energies were calibrated by using the contaminant carbon (C_{1s} = 284.6 eV) as a reference. The Fourier transformation infra-red spectrum (FTIR) experiments were carried out on an AVATAR 370 FT-IR spectrometer. Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed with a PerkinElmer Pyris Diamond TG analyzer under air atmosphere with a heating ramp of 5 °C/min. The photoluminescence spectroscopy (PLS) was collected on Varian Cary-Eclipse 500 excited with 280 nm lights. The photocurrent responses in the light on–off process were determined in a homeland three electrode quartz cell containing 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution under visible lights (>420 nm) irradiation at an applied potential of 0.5 V vs. SCE (saturated calomel electrode) with electrochemical workstation (CHI 660D, Chen Hua Instrument Co., Ltd.).

2.4. Activity test

The photocatalytic NO oxidation was performed at an ambient temperature in a continuous flow setup equipped with an online NO–NO₂–NO_x analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Model 42i) under irradiation with two 150 W tungsten lamps equipped with a UV cut filter to cut off lights with wavelength <420 nm. The NO conversion was defined as follow:

$$\text{NO conversion(\%)} = \frac{C_0 - C}{C_0} \times 100\%$$

where C_0 is the initial balanced concentration of NO and C is the concentration of NO at a given time in photocatalytic reaction process.

The photocatalytic disinfection was carried out in a flask containing a photocatalyst and suspension of bacterial cells at 25 °C under stirring and irradiation a 300 W Xenon lamp equipped with a UV cut filter to cut off lights with wavelength <400 nm. The visible-light intensity was measured by a light meter (LI-COR, USA) and was fixed at 190 mW cm⁻². All glass apparatuses used in the experiments were autoclaved at 121 °C for 20 min to ensure sterility. The bacterial cells was incubated in 10% nutrient broth solution at 30 °C for 18 h. The final photocatalyst concentration and cell density were adjusted to 100 mg L⁻¹ and about 1 × 10⁷ colony forming units per milliliter (cfu mL⁻¹), respectively. Keep the reaction temperature at 25 °C and stir the reaction mixture with a magnetic stirrer throughout the experiment. Before and after the photocatalytic oxidation (PCO) treatment, an aliquot of the reaction solution was sampled at given time and immediately diluted with sterilized saline, followed by spreading onto a nutrient agar. After being incubated at 30 °C for 24 h, the number of colonies formed was counted to determine the antibacterial efficiency.

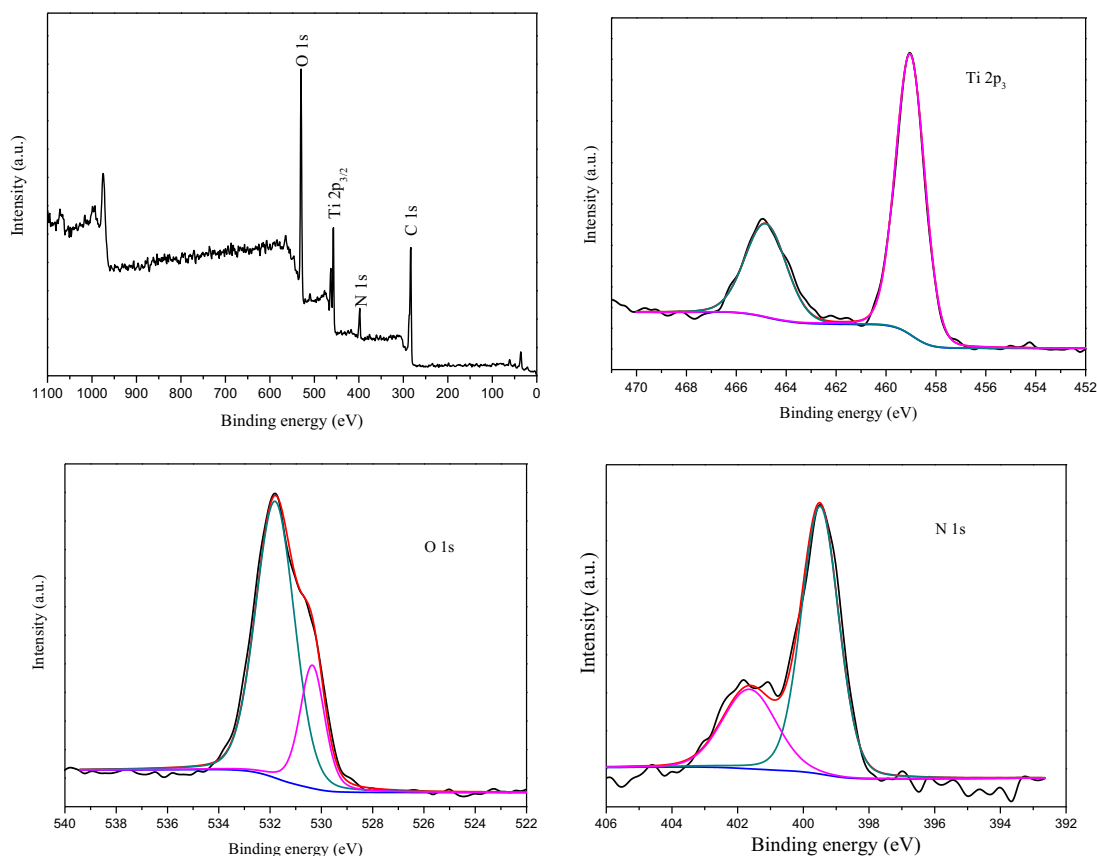


Fig. 2. XPS spectra of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ polymer.

3. Results and discussion

As shown on Fig. 1, the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ displayed similar FTIR spectrum to the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MIL-125(Ti)}$ [12]. No significant vibration bands at 3059 and 2524 cm^{-1} indicative of the COOH group in the original H_2ATA molecule were observed. However, two vibration bands at 3500–3150 cm^{-1} characteristic of the $-\text{NH}_2$ group in H_2ATA molecule were still reserved, which were overlapped with the strong vibration band of the $-\text{OH}$ group around 3350 cm^{-1} . Meanwhile, the special vibration peaks at 962, 892 and 770 cm^{-1} corresponding to the O–Ti–O bond were distinguished (see the enlarged spectrum on right) [20]. These results confirmed the coordination of Ti^{4+} with the $-\text{COOH}$ group rather than the $-\text{NH}_2$ group in the H_2ATA molecule.

The coordination between coordination of Ti^{4+} and H_2ATA via $-\text{COOH}$ groups to form $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ could be further confirmed by XPS spectra. As shown in Fig. 2, all the Ti species were present in +4 oxidation state, corresponding to the binding energies (BE) of 459.1 and 464.8 eV in $\text{Ti } 2p_{3/2}$ and $\text{Ti } 2p_{1/2}$ level, respectively. The positive BE shift in comparison with that observed in pure anatase TiO_2 [21,22], implied the coordination between Ti^{4+} and H_2ATA . This could be further confirmed by the negative BE shift of the O 1s in $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ comparing to that in pure anatase TiO_2 [21,22]. The peak around BE of 531.8 eV in O 1s level could be assigned to O species in the C–O bond [23]. There were two kinds of N species. The peak around BE of 399.5 eV in N 1s level could be attributed to N species in the NH_2 group, while the peak at about 401.5 eV could be attributed to the formation of protonated amine group in acidic medium [24].

The TGA curve in Fig. 3 demonstrated that, besides a slight weight loss from 50 to 100 $^\circ\text{C}$ due to the desorption of trace solvents, the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ displayed a strong weight loss of about

55.6% between 160 and 500 $^\circ\text{C}$, corresponding to burning removal of organic ligands to produce TiO_2 (33.3%). The mass ratio between organic ligands and TiO_2 implied that each Ti^{4+} ion coordinated with one H_2ATA in cross-linked network, leading to a porous polymer similar to $\text{NH}_2\text{-MIL-125(Ti)}$ [12]. However, the weight of organic ligands was significantly reduced due to the unsaturated Ti^{4+} coordination, which may account for the poor crystallization degree of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$. As a result, the XRD pattern (Fig. S1a) showed that the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ was present only in amorphous state. As shown in the Fig. 4, both FESEM and TEM images revealed that the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ was comprised of uniform small nanoparticles. The $\text{Ag@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ remained the morphology and particle size of the original $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$. These Ag particles with average

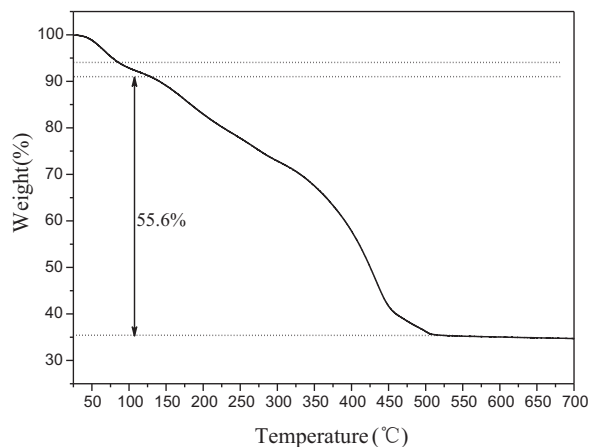


Fig. 3. Thermal analysis of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ polymer under air atmosphere.

Table 1
Structural parameters of different samples.

Sample	S_{BET} ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	V_p ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)	D_p (nm)	D_s (nm)
$\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$	317	0.58	7.3	19
$\text{Ag(20 mg)@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$	286	0.39	5.9	22
$\text{Ag(40 mg)@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$	272	0.44	6.5	23
$\text{Ag(60 mg)@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$	245	0.49	6.3	24
$\text{Ag(80 mg)@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$	205	0.31	6.1	29

diameter around 60–70 nm were dispersed and encapsulated by $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$.

Based on the N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms (Fig. S1b), they exhibited the typical IV isotherms, indicating the mesoporous structure. In addition, the BET specific surface area (S_{BET}), pore volume (V_p), pore size (D_p) and average particle diameter of different samples (D_s) were calculated. As shown in Table 1, the addition of the Ag nanoparticles caused decrease in S_{BET} , V_p and D_p , while the D_s increased. A possible reason was that microwave irradiation induced local “super hot” dots generated on the Ag surfaces, accompanied by the polymerization reaction between Ti^{4+} and H_2ATA on the Ag NPs. Thus, all the Ag nanoparticles were encapsulated by $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$. Meanwhile, the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ particle size increased owing to the rapid crystal growth induced by “super hot” dots as polymerization centers. From Fig. S2a and S2b, it could be seen that after polymerization reaction, the size of Ag NPs did not obviously change, indicating that encapsulating of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ on Ag NPs could suppress the aggregation of Ag NPs under microwave irradiation. The DRS spectra in Fig. 5 demonstrated that N-doped TiO_2 showed spectral response in visible-light region owing to the incorporation of N into TiO_2 lattice, corresponding to the formation of intermediate energy levels [5,25]. The $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ also displayed strong absorbance for visible lights with the absorption edge located at 570 nm. This further confirmed the similar polymer structure to the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MIL-125(Ti)}$, in which the COO-Ti^{4+}

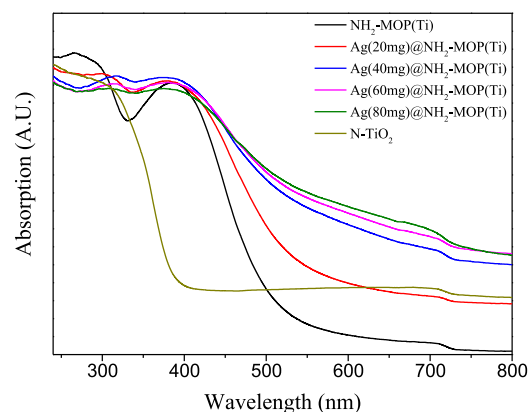


Fig. 5. UV-vis DRS spectra of different photocatalysts.

coordination bond generated the spectral response in the range from 400 to 570 nm [26]. The $\text{Ag@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ displayed stronger absorbance for visible lights than that of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$. Obviously, the localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) effects from Ag NPs could be neglected due to the big size (60–70 nm). Meanwhile, the presence of Ag could enhance the dispersion (see the structural parameters in Table 1). Thus, the promoting effects could be mainly attributed to the assembly of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ polymer onto Ag NPs which promoted light harvesting via multiple reflections. The increase of Ag amount could further enhance the visible light absorbance owing to the improved assembly of $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ polymer. Meanwhile, the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) responses (Fig. S3) demonstrated the smaller semicircles of the $\text{Ag@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ than that of the $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$, indicating that decoration with Ag NPs could significantly reduce the electrochemical impedance since Ag is excellent electric conductor. Meanwhile, the photoluminescence (PL) spectra (Fig. S4) revealed

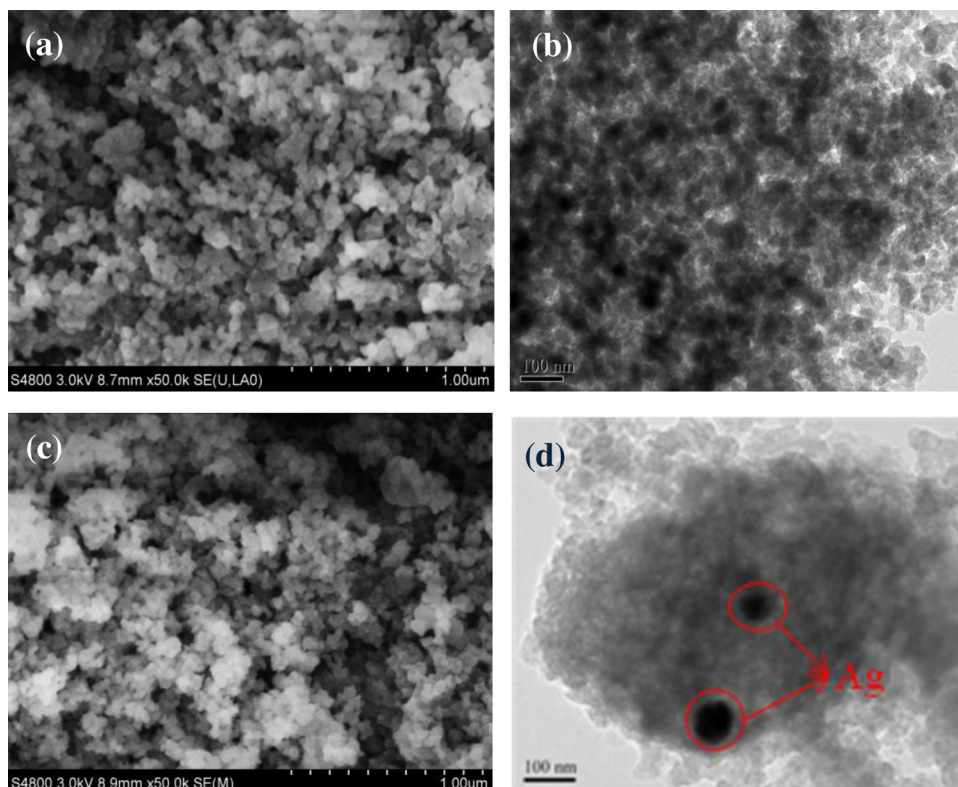


Fig. 4. The FESEM (left) and TEM (right) images of (a and b) $\text{NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$ and (c and d) $\text{Ag@NH}_2\text{-MOP(Ti)}$.

that all the Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited much lower peak intensity around 560 nm than the NH₂-MOP(Ti), corresponding to the lower photoelectron–hole recombination rate since the rapid transfer of photoelectrons promoted their separation from holes. As a result, the Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) displayed stronger photocurrent response under visible light irradiation than that of NH₂-MOP(Ti) (see Fig. S5) owing to both the enhanced light harvesting ability for generating more photocarriers and the facilitated electron-transfer for diminishing photoelectron–hole recombination rate. With the increase of Ag amount up to 40 mg, the electrochemical impedances decreased gradually owing to the enhanced electron conductivity, leading to enhanced photocurrent due to low photoelectron–hole recombination rate. However, further increase in the Ag amount resulted in an abrupt decrease in photocurrent since too many Ag nanoparticles in the NH₂-MOP(Ti) might promote the photoelectron–hole recombination. In addition, the N-TiO₂ displayed poor absorbance for visible lights due to very low content of N (<3.4% N/Ti molar ratio) incorporated into TiO₂ lattice and also showed high photoelectron–hole recombination rate due to the poor electric conductivity in the absence of Ag, which is in accordance with the result of low photocurrent.

As shown in Fig. 6 the NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited slightly lower activity than the typical visible-light photocatalyst (N-TiO₂) in photocatalytic Nitric oxide (NO) oxidation under visible lights irradiation. As discussed above, the NH₂-MOP(Ti) showed even higher visible lights absorbance than the N-TiO₂. Therefore, its low activity thus could be mainly attributed to the extremely poor crystallization degree, which was unfavorable for electron transfer [27], leading to the high photoelectron–hole recombination. The Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited much higher activity than the NH₂-MOP(Ti) owing to both the enhanced light harvesting ability and the reduced photoelectron–hole recombination rate by facilitating photoelectron-transfer. The activity gradually increased with increasing Ag content owing to the enhanced promoting effects. However, very high Ag-content was harmful for the photocatalytic activity, possibly due to the gathering of Ag NPs which might promote photoelectron–hole recombination. The Ag(40 mg)@NH₂-MOP(Ti) was thus determined as an optimum photocatalyst, which exhibited the activity almost twice as that of the N-TiO₂. Interestingly, as shown in Fig. 7, it also exhibited high activity in killing bacteria under Xenon lamp irradiation with $\lambda \geq 400$ nm, while there was no anti-bacterial activity without photocatalyst or light irradiation, indicating the excellent photocatalytic water disinfectants performance working under visible-light irradiation.

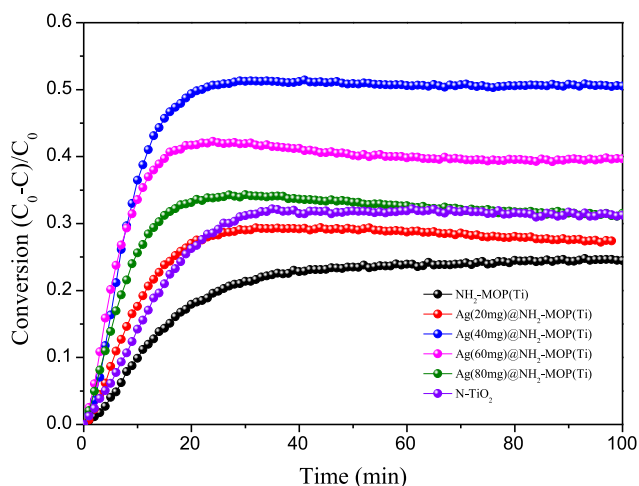


Fig. 6. Reaction profiles of photocatalytic NO oxidation under visible lights ($\lambda \geq 420$ nm) irradiation.

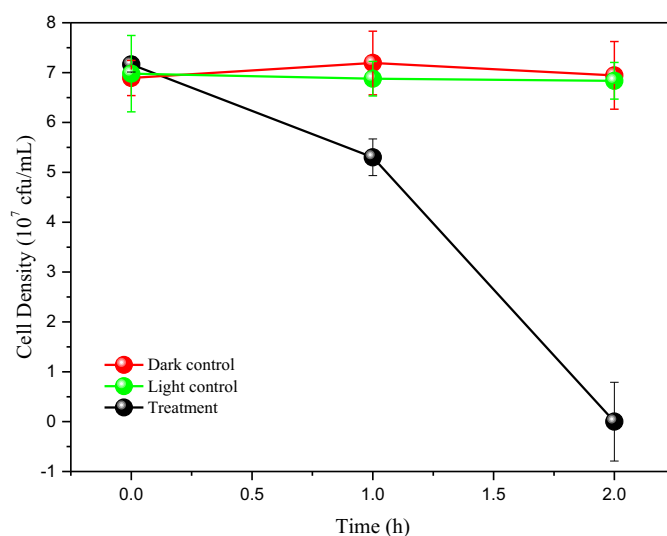


Fig. 7. Photocatalytic anti-bacteria performance of Ag(40 mg)@NH₂-MOP(Ti) for inactivating 7 log 10 bacteria, exposed to visible lights irradiation ($\lambda \geq 400$ nm) in the presence of Ag(40 mg)@NH₂-MOP(Ti) (○-○-); only irradiated with Xe lamp without photocatalysts (□-□-); in the presence of photocatalysts without Xe lamp irradiation (●-●-).

Fig. 8 schematically illustrated the reaction mechanism for photocatalytic NO oxidation over Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti). Similar to the NH₂-MIL-125(Ti) [28], the NH₂-MOP(Ti) polymer was formed by cross-linked Ti⁴⁺–H₂ATA coordination. The visible light irradiation induced the excitation of electrons in the H₂ATA-ligand owing to the narrow energy band gap, followed by jumping from the HOMO orbital to the LUMO orbital, resulting in photoelectrons (e_{tr}^-) and holes (h_{tr}^+). Besides the recombination with the h_{tr}^+ , other e_{tr}^- would transfer from the H₂ATA-ligand to Ti⁴⁺, which could directly reduce Ti⁴⁺ into Ti³⁺ or transfer onto Ag NPs, which may retard their recombination with h_{tr}^+ . Both the e_{tr}^- on the Ag NPs or the Ti³⁺ could reduce O₂ to O₂^{•-} [29]. Taking into account of the molecular orbital structure ((σ_{1s})² (σ_{1s}^*)² (σ_{2s})² (σ_{2s}^*)² (σ_{2p})² (π_{2p})⁴ (π_{2p}^*)¹), a single electron occupied the π antibonding orbital in NO molecule which was unstable and could be easily lost. Thus, the h_{tr}^+ on the HOMO orbital of the H₂ATA-ligand could easily capture such a single electron on the π antibonding orbital in NO molecule to form NO⁺ [30,31]. Other h_{tr}^+ might directly oxidize H₂O to form the HO• radical or recombine with the e_{tr}^- . The HO• radicals also served as active sites. According to the online NO–NO₂–NO_x analysis, the O₂^{•-} and the HO• radicals further oxidized NO⁺ into NO₃⁻,

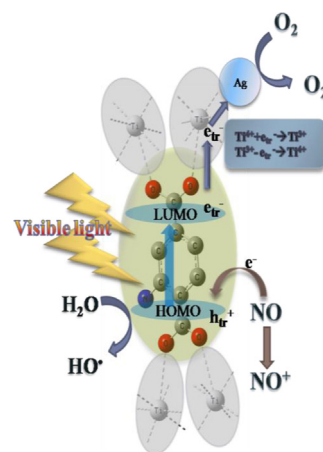


Fig. 8. Schematic illustration of mechanism for visible lights driven photocatalytic NO oxidation over Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti).

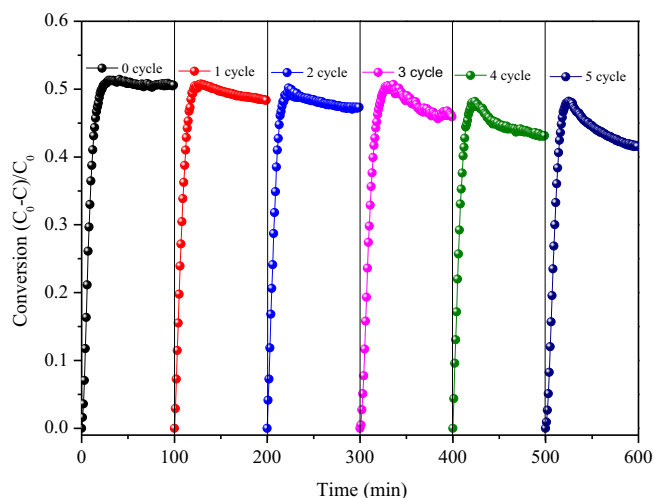
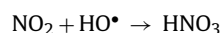
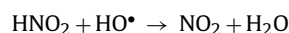
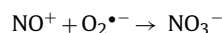
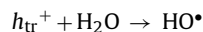
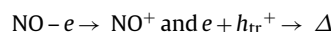
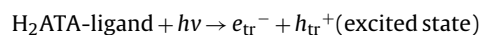


Fig. 9. Recycling test of Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) for photocatalytic NO oxidation under visible lights ($\lambda \geq 420$ nm) irradiation.

together with the formation of NO₂[−] and as side products (see the following reaction equations) [29]. The important role of the HO• radicals from H₂O oxidation could be confirmed by the fact that the NO conversion increased by adding trace water moisture (see Fig. S6).



Besides the high activity, the Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) also showed strong durability and could be used repetitively without significant decrease in activity (see Fig. 9). As shown by the N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms, FTIR, XRD and TEM results (Fig. S7) of the photocatalyst before and after 5 cycles, no obvious change on the physicochemical properties and morphology of the samples after the cycled reaction was observed. We conclude that the slight decrease in the activity could be mainly attributed to the adsorption of HNO₃ onto the photocatalyst, which was accordance with the previous reports [30,32].

4. Conclusions

This work developed a novel MOFs-like organotitanium polymer via Ti⁴⁺–H₂ATA coordination in cross-linked network under microwave irradiation. The as-prepared Ag@NH₂-MOP(Ti) exhibited very high activity and strong durability in visible lights driven

photocatalytic NO oxidation and inactivation of bacteria. The NH₂-MOP(Ti) was activated by visible lights to generate photoelectrons and holes, followed by producing O₂^{•−} and HO• active species. The Ag nanoparticles promoted light harvesting and electron transfer to reduce photoelectron–hole recombination. To further enhance photocatalytic activity and stability, highly crystallized NH₂-MOP(Ti) with well-defined MOFs structure will be designed. Such a work is being under way.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2015.02.003>.

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